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ABSTRACT

Suggested innovations in the Unesco Associated School Program are described in this report. Fourteen member states participated in the conference in order to improve international understanding and school-community relationships by suggesting innovations in the organizational structure, curriculum content, and teaching methods of the schools. Two separate reports of the English-speaking countries and the French-speaking countries are included. Both reports provide a philosophical foundation, strategies for change, and possible projects. A final joint recommendation report of the two groups stresses the necessity for further faculty training, UNESCO establishment of information clearinghouses and curriculum development centers within the framework of existing institutions, key structural changes in selected Associated Schools which will act as models for further curriculum development, and more emphasis on innovative teaching units in the circular, International Understanding at School. Two brief working papers submitted to the conference entitled The School as Social Agent in the Community: Determinants of Effective Programs and Education and Community are also included. (Author/DE)

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UNITED NATIONS EDUCATIONAL,
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AD HOC GROUP TO ADVISE ON INNOVATIVE PROGRAMMES
AND PROJECTS IN ASSOCIATED SCHOOLS

Unesco House, Paris, 21-25 July 1975

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION

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Report

Introduction

The genesis of this meeting was a much larger international conference which took place in Canada in 1973 to appraise the Associated Schools Project. The latter conference included officials of National Commissions, co-ordinators, teachers, consultants and observers who, looking back over the record of the past 20 years, came to the conclusion that it would be useful to emphasize new approaches and programmes in Associated Schools. The participants recommended a renovation of the programme and suggested that the pilot rôle of the schools in promoting innovations should be strengthened.

In response to this concern, a small informal ad hoc working group was assembled at Unesco Headquarters from 21 to 25 July 1975 to advise the Secretariat on innovative programmes and projects for the Associated Schools. The participants, who came from 14 Member States and took part in the meeting in a private capacity, are listed in Annex I.

Opening the meeting on behalf of the Director-General, Mr. Leo Fernig, Acting Assistant Director-General for Education, drew attention to the purpose of the meeting, which was to generate new ideas which the Secretariat could communicate to Associated Schools around the world. He suggested that the meeting might seek sources of innovation in the relationship between school and community. Calling community-oriented education "the rediscovery of an essential educational truth", Mr. Fernig stressed that the school must be linked to the life of the society of which it was a part.

In this context, Mr. Fernig underlined three points. First, and most important, was the question of international understanding. Promotion of international understanding, he said, was perhaps the main justification for the Organization's existence. However, this was so powerful and fundamental a principle that it was sometimes taken for granted and forgotten. Unesco's rôle in this domain was to find ways and means of inspiring those responsible for education, whether it be the Ministries or teachers, to keep constantly before them the necessity for developing better understanding of other peoples.

The second point concerned the school/community relationship. This, Mr. Fernig continued, was a two-way link which was not always easy to establish. Among the difficulties to be expected were those attendant upon changing the thinking habits of school directors, teachers and even students, so that they would go out into the community. Equally important was the need to modify the attitudes of the community as a whole, so that people would recognize the school as a living, dynamic

institution and not as one which accomplished a mere custodial task. They should be habituated to accept the notion of the school coming into the factory, the place of work, the home.

According to Mr. Fernig, however, the most significant contribution which the meeting could make was in respect of the immediate concern to link the school/community relationship with education for international understanding and to identify the similar values underlying the two. Questions to be asked were: Does a better school/community relationship contribute to international understanding? - Why? - How?

The third point raised by Mr. Fernig concerned innovation, which he described as being "deliberate changes which bring about an improvement in the educational process" - the ultimate test being the degree to which innovations could be successfully generalized. "Good innovation gets into the bloodstream and modifies the organism." It could be located at the level of structures - changing the form of a school, its organization or content, its curriculum; or of methods; or a combination of these. But on the whole, those innovations which appeared to succeed in improving education were those where the change of structure, content and method had implicitly or explicitly introduced a change in objectives, aims and goals.

The task before the group was, then, to suggest innovations in schools and teachers' colleges where the school/community relationship was the core of the problem but where the aim - directly or indirectly - was an improvement of human relationships in general and therefore better understanding of other groups and respect for other peoples. In other words, the group was concerned with the substance of the General Conference's Recommendation concerning Education for International Understanding, Co-operation and Peace and Education relating to Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms. This was one of the main documents to which the group referred, as well as two brief working papers which had been prepared for the meeting (Annexes II and III).

Most of the discussions took place in two sub-groups which were formed after the opening plenary session. Each of the groups adopted its own approach to the matter under consideration. For this reason, the participants requested that the two reports on the meeting be presented separately, and this has been done in the following pages. The reports should not be interpreted as representing unanimous agreement in the groups on all details; nor as reflecting the views of the Secretariat in all matters; nevertheless there was general agreement on essentials. The Rapporteurs for the two groups were Mrs. Margaret Devitt (UK) and Mr. Michel Pagnier (France).

A short concluding section brings together in summary form the main suggestions and ideas which emerged in final plenary sessions of the meeting.

A. REPORT OF THE ENGLISH-SPEAKING GROUP

I. THEMES AND PROJECTS

The group agreed as a preliminary that projects proposed for Associated Schools could in future be envisaged as short-term activities of two, three or four years' duration, so that the schools could see their work moving towards a recognizable goal or culminating point and also so that themes would have to be frequently re-thought as conditions in the school and its community evolved.

It was felt that proposals should be sufficiently general in tone to be applicable in a variety of different situations and to encourage the teacher to be flexible in his interpretation of them, but also sufficiently concrete to be understood and accepted readily by the average teacher. It was agreed, therefore, that although no detailed plan would be laid down for projects, guidelines should be available to the teacher, in particular guidelines on the strategies he might adopt for implementing the changes which a community-oriented education necessarily implies. The group also recommended the inclusion of specific case studies to demonstrate the type of activities and programmes that teachers in their specific situation might be involved in devising.

With these points in mind, the group identified three criteria for selection of themes of community/school activity:

the themes should have a strong link to the real-life situation of the child and his community;

the themes should have an international dimension. They should not be so discrete to their own community as to be parochial;

the themes should be capable of being developed from the immediate, the particular and the local to the long-term, the general and the universal. This is to say that, depending on the age and ability of the children, it should be possible, from an immediate, topically relevant project, for the student to develop general principles and perceive lasting values and qualities which have a wider application than his own immediate situation.

Such an approach to learning should increase communication not only between different age groups within and outside the school, but also between people with different life styles and positions in the society. It should draw on the society's wide range of knowledge, skills and, above all, experiences, so that learning itself would be less oriented to formal academic study in isolation from the needs and problems of the community in which the child lives. The approach should also provide opportunities for Associated Schools to exchange their accumulated experience as a contribution to international understanding. Some of the group felt that this might necessitate a regional clearing-house structure. Finally, projects should be designed for different age groups.

The four main themes proposed were as follows:

1. <u>Human rights in the local community</u>

Depending on local circumstances schools might examine such matters as the situation of migratory workers or minority groups, the changing position of women, various kinds of discrimination, or the relationship of individuals to decision-making in their own community. Although such an activity - as in the case of the examination of minority and/or racial problems - might initially arise from a

recognition of social tensions, it should rapidly develop through the involvement of parents and adults from the groups concerned into a situation of increased dialogue and appreciation of the value of communal diversity.

2. Environmental education

Although much environmental education is already community-based, the group felt that present practice is largely science-bound in the sense that children are encouraged merely to observe their environment and collect various kinds of data rather than to make a qualitative evaluation of it. It was judged necessary to develop the international dimension in environmental education, so that the school and the community would not only be involved in understanding the nature and quality of their own immediate environment but also would learn to appreciate the global character of environmental issues and the interdependence of nations in dealing with them. It was felt that this theme is closely linked to the next.

3. Child-and-the-family project

Recognizing the need to recommend projects suitable for a wide range of ages and ability, and the desirability of beginning this type of work as early in the school life of the child as possible, the group suggested that a project which focused the child's attention on his own social development and attitude would be of major value. Such a project might begin with the very young child at the level of the diversity of experience within his own classroom community and develop in him an appreciation of the real value and acceptability of such diversity. Thus, through a comparison of concrete experiences - homes, food, stories, dress - he would relate to a wider range of characteristics of the human family. Such a project would be applicable at more sophisticated levels of understanding, so that sub-projects on children's rights and responsibilities, the relations of men and women in society and human relations in general might grow alongside and help the child's own attitude development. In this respect, the group made special reference to the experimental project carried out within the Associated Schools framework and described in the document "An experience-centred curriculum.*

4. Community development and participation project

Under this heading, the group suggested that, starting from existing phenomena in the local situation, the school, parents and other adults could co-operate in investigating and working on a local, closely-defined problem, need or development situation, so that the school would be involved in a two-way process of learning from and contributing to the community. A strategy was outlined for the implementation of such projects, from which it was possible to extrapolate general principles applicable in a variety of communal situations.** The following five steps are suggested as constituting ways for teachers to develop participatory projects in the community:

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* Cf. An experience-centred curriculum.

** Non-formal education, a pilot project. National Council of Educational Research and Training. New Delhi, July 1975.

(a) community development, necessary as a basis for education systems in countries where it is urgent, is in fact an ongoing process in all societies. Through their educational experiences children should be made aware of the positive direction which their community could and should give to such development by playing a full part in monitoring and furthering that development;

(b) teachers should co-operate with other agencies in the local community such as agricultural development bodies, health authorities, social workers, etc., to survey the needs and state of development of the society in which they live and work;

(c) teachers should make themselves more aware of the human resources of their pupils' community, informing themselves of the skills, knowledge and experience that parents and other adults can contribute to the learning situation;

(d) in the context of an economically developing community, for example a village in a rural area of a developing country, parents and other adults should be involved from the start, so that community education is not seen as something imposed on them by outside "experts" but as their own enterprise. This principle is equally applicable to activities in industrialized societies. It was agreed that the necessary prerequisite in both was the creation of a supportive climate of opinion in the school and in the wider community, and that the likelihood of achieving this was greatest where parents and children could perceive short-term, tangible results in such a programme;

(e) after a first phase emphasizing practical achievement so as to win the involvement of children and community, project work may lead to a recognition by the participants of the need for a stronger basis, in terms of skills, knowledge and attitudes, to further the project and consolidate gains already achieved. Stimulated by what has been done in practice and by their direct involvement, participants will be more ready to recognize the value of more formal studies related to the action situation. This would be the point at which the objectives and form of a curriculum could be worked out, since there would be a concern for knowledge to interpret experience and a willingness to learn how to learn. The curriculum should be flexible, and both it and the resources and instructional materials assembled should be adapted to the specific needs of the particular situation.

In this strategy the international dimension would be particularly relevant. It would become increasingly apparent to all concerned that community development depends on many factors outside the immediate community. In particular the work of the United Nations and other international agencies would be made meaningful.

5. Other projects

The fifth suggestion has no more descriptive a title than this because the group felt that in using the community as a resource for educational activities, it was vital to leave teachers free to design their own projects. These should be based on an examination of the locality with the pupils and people from outside, so that the project grows from a school/community dialogue. It was felt that what teachers needed most in this context was less a list of topics to work on than a strategy of innovation to use, and the following suggestions were made:

(a) interested teachers should meet together to form a team and examine the problems they might face in their immediate situation. This would enable them to prepare an approach suited to the situation and create a favourable climate of opinion in which to work;

(b) parents should at first be involved by informal meetings and discussions on clearly-defined matters where their contribution can be useful and they can recognize their own value within the situation;

(c) a specific short-term project should be decided upon so that parents are clear about the nature and duration of their involvement;

(d) the rest of the parents should be kept informed and invited to participate from an early stage so that divisions are not created;

(e) from this parent involvement, civic initiative groups might arise;

(f) at the same time as these informal developments are made, it is important that formal connexions with responsible educational authorities should be maintained.

Given this strategy, it was felt that certain implications arise for the school and for teacher-training. The following suggestions may be useful for the implementation of such a programme:

school buildings should be more freely available for community use;

parents should be involved as equals in the project;

links should be established with other "learning places" in the wider community so as to involve other adults with special skills, interests and experience;

the themes selected should interest both parents and children;

community work should be recognized as having its own validity and intellectual respectability;

teachers should become community workers;

work should be on an integrated basis involving adults and children;

teacher-training should prepare students for such work by involving them in experience situations in existing projects in the school and the community.

II. PROBLEMS IN IMPLEMENTING PROJECTS

The group agreed that a number of specific problems or obstacles necessarily arise from the implementation of the projects suggested above. It was felt that the major ones facing teachers who wish to carry out innovations were:

convincing teachers working within well functioning traditional framework that alternative methods and goals may be worth examining or attempting; helping teachers, once they were convinced of the value of teaching for international understanding to find ways of getting started;

finding ways of integrating community projects with the existing curriculum, and relating these projects to current examination systems;

difficulties arising from relations with achievement-oriented parents and other community members such as employers, education officials, etc.;

structural constraints such as the lack of multi-purpose school buildings and flexibility in the time-tables;

conflicts between subject- and experience-oriented learning, specifically in reference to the demands made on resources, teacher manpower, etc.;

poor teacher relationships and lack of support mechanisms. It was agreed that teachers undertaking innovative experiments are in a testing situation and can indeed feel insecure and unsupported. Conversely those teachers not involved may feel discriminated against;

developing better relations with external agencies;

the availability, the expense and the preparation of resources at both teachers' and children's levels;

improving the relationships between Associated Schools and the centralized educational systems in which they function.

III. STRATEGIES FOR TACKLING PROBLEMS

Regarding the first problem above, it was felt that one of the ways of convincing and advising teachers which has the most impact is to provide them with case studies of different types of projects and approaches, some of which would be more suitable to one school or another, according to how tightly organized its curriculum, examinations, time-tabling and staffing might be. Thus, the group examined in some detail the community project approach, the topic approach, the comparison and contrast study approach, recognizing that each draws its impetus from different assumptions about educational purposes and methods, since the community project approach relies on the wider community to provide the curriculum, the topic approach grows more immediately from the child's daily experience and the last is more suitable to the content-based formal curriculum.

The strategy for a community problem approach has been outlined above, but the group described two case studies as examples, based on (a) the interaction between young children, hospital provision and the parents' rôle; and (b) on the collective use of land and machinery within the context of two countries with contrasting economic and social conditions.

Regarding the topic approach again, two case studies were examined: one which grew from the child's immediate experience of family and human relations within his own local group to a wider empathy with the human environment, thus stressing the affective as well as cognitive learning; the second, which - again originating with a child-centred experience - extended understanding to a recognition of economic and physical interdependence.

As for the problem of the teacher faced by extreme constraints of syllabus, examinations and time-tabling, it was felt necessary for him to be able to draw on comparative material to highlight the international dimensions of the topic he was teaching. For example, a history, geography or biology teacher in an Associated

School should be able to contact other subject-based teachers elsewhere so as to seek the common denominators in their individual work: e.g., an exchange of text-books extracts to show how each other's country is represented, accompanied by pupils' comments.

IV. THE NEED FOR SUPPORT MECHANISMS AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FOLLOW-UP ACTION

It was agreed that common to all these approaches must be the development of positive attitudes, not only in the child but primarily and essentially in the teacher. With this in mind, therefore, the group considered the vital issue of incentives, reinforcement and support for teachers engaged or interested in being engaged in such work - especially given the context in many countries of growing economic and academic constraints in the schools. In this context, three elements appeared of paramount importance:

the regular and localized contact with, and informing of, teachers in Associated Schools, necessitating efficient means of communication both at and between national levels so as to provide the support mechanisms teachers require, whether through a network or some other means;

the rôle of the National Commissions, Associated School co-ordinators and individual schools and teachers in this work; and

the necessity of advanced planning and publication of proposed and ongoing projects.

It was agreed, however, that the detailed examination of local needs and activities could only be related to the individual education systems and community situations, and that responsibility must therefore fall heavily on National Commissions to involve Associated School teachers in discussion and planning structures, in working parties, in regional and national conferences, not merely on an ad hoc basis but in such a way that the following suggestions might be attempted and realized where appropriate:

the examination of concepts of international education and understanding as they relate to individual countries and communities. These activities might be initiated by National Commissions within their own countries;

the preparation of suggestions of implementing the projects already recommended in the specific education system within which the teacher has to function. This might be done by bringing together age-group working parties, school planning groups and/or the circulation of case studies, guidelines or handbooks to teachers;

the examination of resource needs, the provision and development of these needs, leading to the extension of existing teacher services and/or the creation of national and regional and inter-regional information centres and clearing houses;

the establishment of a liaison with other education groups such as teachers' unions, professional associations, subject associations, and with responsible authorities at local and national level, such as health authorities, policy-making bodies, education ministries, etc.;

the organization of regional, national and international conferences and workshops for both teachers and students, so as to foster greater continuity of effort and intercommunication;

the encouragement of international exchanges of teachers and/or students for specific project study and joint work;

the examination of the possibilities of creating the machinery for international regional liaison and communication.

In support of these suggestions, Unesco might consider establishing small groups working on specific recommendations so as to assist and co-ordinate the work of individual Commissions.

B. REPORT OF THE FRENCH-SPEAKING GROUP

I. PHILOSOPHY AND CONTEXT

The group proceeded from the following assumption rather than approach the problem of international understanding at the top, i.e. at the intellectual level, it would be advisable to start at the bottom - i.e. with the solid reality of everyday life. This would mean taking steps to enable the school to emerge from its isolation and to ensure that the problems of the daily life of the community - e.g. social conflicts, conflicts between groups or nations - are discussed within its walls in order to enable pupils, teachers and other members of the community to involve themselves in active efforts to try and solve such problems. This requires continuous interaction between theory and practice, combining the detachment necessary for critical appraisal with active participation in the life of the community. By starting with the pupils' actual situation and immediate concerns, it is possible both to motivate them more strongly and to broaden their outlook. Indeed, armed with better knowledge of their own situation, they will be better equipped to recognize the characteristics which various communities have in common, at both the national and the international level. In order to encourage such a broadening of outlook, education for international understanding should thus, for example, not only show how other people live, but also provide clues to an understanding of why they live in a particular way, of the circumstances that have determined their degree of development and way of life and, lastly, of the external forces that exert a determining influence on them. It should also ensure that the individual is capable of perceiving reality as an integral whole, pointing out not only those factors which unite peoples, but also those which, at present, divide them.

Proceeding from this approach, the group realized that it was impossible to decide on specific projects or themes which would be relevant and well-suited to all the Associated Schools, the circumstances of the latter varying according to whether they are situated in industrialized or developing countries, in rural or urban environments, and also according to the type of social, political, cultural and educational structures in which they are implanted. In view of all these differences, it seemed virtually impossible to suggest precise projects and guidelines which would be generally, internationally applicable. The group therefore chose to concentrate on the preparation of what might be styled a procedural guide for the benefit of teachers who wished to undertake innovative activities in Associated Schools, its purpose being threefold:

to define the various stages of the process involved;

to provide the most concrete methodological indications possible to help the teacher in the starting and running of that process;

to emphasize the factors to be taken into account at each stage.

This approach was adopted in the awareness that international understanding should be conceived as a dynamic, on-going process of transformation or change, the primary aims of which are the development of the critical faculties and the active participation of pupils, teachers and other members of the community (whether families, other institutions or other people as individuals. This is not a neutral process, and it would be somewhat incorrect to conceive of it as such, if the aim is to promote the kind of international understanding which has been broadly described earlier. It is not possible to plan an activity in a neutral manner, and it is obvious that, sooner or later, any type of activity, especially in the framework of the Associated Schools, will run into a number of conflicts, or will at least bring to light a number of difficulties.

The group therefore sought to distinguish the various stages of a process whilst indicating a number of possible methods for each of them - alternatives and not, of course, hard and fast rules. The aim was to present, for each of these stages, a number of criteria which must be borne in mind when considering both educational and technical issues. Again for each of these stages, examples were given, serving to illustrate the discussion and drawn from the experience of participants. They were not imaginary examples, but actual experiences which had already met with success, or, in some cases, with failure.

II. THE PROCEDURAL GUIDE

The first stage should consist in a preliminary identification of constraints and obstacles; the second in deciding on the themes or subjects to be taken up by the Associated Schools; the third, study and further exploration of those themes; the fourth, possible action which the Associated School might take, either inside or outside the school; and the fifth, examining possibilities for enlarging the scope of the subject or activity originally chosen.

1. Identifying the constraints and obstacles

This is certainly one of the most fundamental stages, since it will to a great extent determine the chances of success or failure of any action undertaken by the Associated Schools. It constitutes, in fact, an indispensable stage of creation of awareness.

(a) Structural constraints

The first type of constraints identified may be called structural constraints. These may be divided into internal constraints - i.e. constraints which are internal to the school or to the structure within which the activity will be undertaken, at least at the outset - and external constraints, which have their origin in a wider national or even regional context, or in an international context.

Three types of (i) internal constraints may be distinguished. Firstly, a number of constraints connected with the organization of the school - i.e. the curriculum and the type of discipline current in the school, the co-ordination or lack of co-ordination among the various subjects taught, etc. This initial constraint is extremely important, since, in many cases, the very structure of the school is in conflict with the aims of the Associated Schools. Thus, if several teachers wish to undertake an activity in the framework of the Associated Schools, but are not sufficiently well-informed about the situation in which they find themselves, their venture is likely to collapse, rapidly and suddenly.

There is a second type of internal constraint which affects more particularly the problem of training, and principally that of teacher training. This, of course, also includes the training of other educational personnel, e.g. supervisors or inspectors, but the group wished to concentrate chiefly on the problem of teacher training. As a rule, the training of teachers is centred very narrowly on what goes on in school, and receptiveness to the world around or to other structures or institutions is very slight. This constitutes a constraint, and, nearly always, an obstacle, which should be identified and confined within limits. Thus, as regards teacher-training colleges, it would seem important to incorporate in the very process of teacher training a certain receptivity to the outside world, the world of production, the community within which the school is set, or any other non-academic milieu. An example which was given in this connexion is the incorporation into training courses for secondary school teachers of a period of practical work - not teaching practice, but work in a production unit which has no direct link with

school. The purpose of this is to develop the critical faculty among teachers and to give them a greater awareness, if not knowledge, of their surroundings, and to attempt to break the isolation in which they usually find themselves, either during their training or later, when they are teaching.

The third type of constraint to be noted concerns not merely the teachers but the personnel who move in their background, namely inspectors, education officers and all the administrative personnel who are involved in the running of schools. At this level, too, it seems important to take steps to ensure that the school has a genuine sense of involvement with its own milieu. It is not enough to encourage pupils and teachers to become thus involved if the very structure of the school acts as a hindrance, and especially if the non-teaching staff have not received even the elements of a training for this purpose.

(ii) External constraints may be divided into two major categories. These are, firstly, the standards prevailing in the society, and, by implication, the political and social options of governments; secondly, relations between the school and other institutions such as the family and the administrative authorities, and the usually non-existent relations between the school and the production sector. The aim is certainly not to turn the school into a factory, but to bring the school into contact with the outside world, and to ensure that a process of preparation for productive work may develop inside the school; this may also constitute a form of activity and a subject for consideration in the Associated Schools.

(b) Psychological constraints

Besides these constraints of a structural nature, there exist a number of other constraints which the group called psychological constraints. There is a great deal of resistance in schools to any involvement with the outside world, and such resistance is to be found at various levels. Firstly, (i) among teachers: it is important to emphasize that teachers are, in many cases, having to cope with problems of a new type. They have lost some of their power and, more especially, their identity (or at least their former identity) and it would appear extremely important to encourage any type of activity which might enable these teachers to establish a new identity. This creates another obstacle. Many teachers may be chary of an activity which does not fit into the traditional school pattern, but such an attitude often stems simply from this loss of identity and a lack of support from those around them - even from their own colleagues.

The teacher or teachers wishing to undertake an activity in the Associated Schools should, before doing so, take a close look not only at their own image of themselves but also at the image they have of their pupils. Teachers have a certain view of pupils, and this view will be a determining factor in deciding on the approach to be adopted, particularly with regard to co-operation between teachers and pupils.

Conversely, (ii) the pupils themselves have a certain image of the teachers, and similarly, they have certain impressions of what the school as an institution expects of them. So here, too - and this may be the rôle of either teachers or pupils - it is important to try to identify the pupils' image of their teachers. The reason for this is very simple: the traditional teacher/pupil relationship is usually hierarchical in the extreme. But one of the aims of education for international understanding is to do everything possible to develop the critical faculty and a spirit of co-operation among the various members of the community; and if, looking at a school from the inside, one is confronted with a type of established relationship which totally excludes genuine co-operation between pupil and teacher, it is almost certain that, unless the various images involved are identified, it will never be possible to overcome resistance to change in methods of work, thought and analysis, among either pupils or teachers.

The third type of psychological obstacle also has to do with images; namely (iii) the image which the community has of the school. If the aim is to develop co-operation between a school and its milieu, then the way the community sees the school must be taken into account, otherwise it will never be possible to achieve real co-operation.

To sum up, one of the preliminary stages in the identification of these constraints and obstacles consists in, as it were, taking stock of all types of prejudice which have a determining influence in any process, and which are likely to cause the failure of activities carried out in the Associated Schools.

In this connexion, the group made a few general remarks. Some obstacles may be overcome. Thus, from a structural point of view, there is a need for co-ordination of activities among teachers. It would be relatively easy to remedy teachers' isolation by organizing some kind of co-ordination or concertation, and by trying to adopt a multidisciplinary approach to every problem. It is also possible to overcome the difficulties already mentioned stemming from the type of training received by teachers by pressing for in-service training courses, for example. Similarly, it is possible to surmount a number of prejudices or restrictive images that hinder pupils by encouraging group work, which makes a marked difference to the pupil/teacher relationship. Greater co-operation may be expected from the community if at the outset parents and members of institutions are drawn into involvement with the aims of the proposed studies, investigations or projects.

On the other hand, there are a number of constraints which cannot be overcome. Some of these may, however, be circumvented. When one is confronted with an obstacle which cannot be eliminated, there are two possible courses of action: either to go round it, or simply to face up to it and try to identify it as clearly as possible, so that, when the time comes, one will be able to go round it or surmount it. The fact that insurmountable obstacles are encountered in the school context should by no means discourage the teacher or the pupils. If the identification of constraints revealed that a particular subject was explosive, it would be a pity to forbid the study of it for that reason. It is also extremely important for children to have to contend with problems which they can only partly solve, especially as when children are faced with a problem which they cannot solve, this state of affairs nearly always broadens their perception, or at least stimulates the desire for a broader perception.

2. Deciding on a theme

Keeping to the initial premise mentioned at the beginning of this report, the group did not seek to determine possible themes, but to identify the key elements likely to help teachers and pupils in making their own choices. The participants' suggestions may be grouped under two headings: desirable features of the theme and possible methods of selection.

(a) Desirable features of the theme

With regard to this first aspect of the choice of a theme, the following features should be taken into consideration:

it should be drawn from a context which is as familiar as possible to the pupils, so that it affects them as directly as possible;

it should be of a kind which will lead on to practical activity, enabling not only the pupils but also other members of the community to participate actively;

it would also be advisable to give priority to themes capable of further development. This presupposes, in particular, that the chosen theme should involve the basic links between regions and nations (production, consumption, culture, etc.);

the final, and no doubt the most important, feature which it would be desirable to seek when choosing a theme might be expressed as follows: to the extent that education for international understanding aims to promote knowledge not only of the factors which bring nations closer together, but also of those which divide them, themes should be chosen from controversial areas which reflect the tensions existing within the community (in the broad or restricted sense of the term). Thus, for instance many participants in the group expressed the wish that the study of the organizations of the United Nations, instead of being, as at present, a mere rapid survey of the agencies, should endeavour to draw attention to the limitations and constraints affecting the activities undertaken by these organizations. The group also reiterated the importance of the Recommendation concerning Education for International Understanding, Co-operation and Peace and Education relating to Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms, adopted by the General Conference at its eighteenth session.

(b) Possible methods of selection

The group suggested two ways or methods of taking the first feature into account:

take advantage of a local event or incident which has directly affected the pupils and the other members of the community. In Belgium, for example, as the result of a breakdown, a town's water supply was cut off for 24 hours. Since this occurrence had caused the children to ask a great many questions, the teachers of the Associated School, in collaboration with the children, conducted an investigation into the problem of their town's water supply, which led, subsequently, and at the request of the pupils themselves, to a study of the world's water problem;

start from the everyday situations in which the children are spectators or actors, for example, the presence in the class of children from different areas, or the presence in the community of immigrant workers, from another region or from another country, etc.

From a more strictly methodological point of view, various formulae may be used, such as:

selection by the teacher (possibly in collaboration with his colleagues), followed by a try-out of the chose theme with the pupils;

joint selection (by pupils, teacher and other members of the community), on the basis of an initial "guideline" question such as: what is wrong with the community?

selection based on an investigation carried out by pupils and teacher among the members of the community.

As was stressed by some members of the group, the choice of both the theme and the method to be used naturally depends on the constraints and obstacles identified during the first stage.

3. Exploration of the theme and diagnosis

At this stage of the proceedings, it is necessary first of all to try to locate the tension in its context and, secondly, to attempt to discover its causes, with a view to working out a diagnosis which will reveal all the elements involved and their interrelationship. From a methodological point of view, it would be desirable to enlist help from outside the school (institutions, specialists, etc.), and to employ all available sources of information (written documents, photographs, drawings, statements, etc.); furthermore, in order to promote a kind of education which favours research rather than the transmission of acquired knowledge, a considerable effort should be made to avoid using the teacher as an intermediary and to develop multidisciplinary approach (collaboration between teachers of different subjects, co-ordination of syllabuses of each subject, etc.).

Having completed this stage, the pupils should be capable of moving on to the most active stage of the undertaking. The diagnosis established may, however, make them realize that it is impossible to influence the situation of tension which they have studied, and may incite them to widen their field of investigation. In the opinion of the majority of the members of the group, this outcome should not be seen as a failure, but, on the contrary, should help to develop the pupils' awareness of the complexity of international relations and of the conflicts of interests underlying them.

4. Action

This stage being dependent on the three earlier stages, the group concentrated on formulating a number of methodological recommendations. On the whole, it seemed important to emphasize the following aspects:

the field of action should be relatively limited;

action within the school should be of such a form as to promote group work and the co-ordination of teachers' activities in a multidisciplinary spirit, and to develop inter-school relations (the paramount rôle of inspectors and education officers in this field should be noted);

as regards action directed at the milieu, more sustained efforts should be made to strengthen the links between the school and the production sector, from which it is often extremely remote. Supporting this recommendation, which is indeed no more than an echo of the General Conference recommendation already mentioned, some members of the group spoke of experiments already attempted in their countries, such as the manufacture of aspirin for the Buenos Aires region by the Faculty of Pharmacy of Buenos Aires, the "production schools" in Panama, potato-growing at the Agricultural College of Yaoundé, etc.

Pursuing the same line of thought, the group emphasized the educational advantages of studying economic problems such as multi-national corporations, or supply and consumption networks.

As regards action directed at the community and concerned with improving the quality of life, reference was also made to experiments such as the planting of trees by pupils and members of the community in order to improve the environment of the village or town (Peru and Hungary).

5. Broadening of horizons

This final stage is the logical conclusion of the process which the group attempted to outline in its discussions. Education for international understanding,

should, indeed, have its starting point at the local level, but although this seems to be a necessary condition for the success of this type of education, it does not follow that it is a sufficient condition. It is therefore advisable to broaden the field of investigation (and action) gradually as the process goes ahead, with the ultimate aim of achieving understanding of national, regional and world problems. At this point it should be recalled, as some participants suggested, that this broadening process should be carried out with caution, since too hurried a progression through the various stages would very probably reduce the motivation of the pupils and teachers engaged in this process.

6. The group had the following suggestions to make:

(a) In-service training: a number of in-service training courses might be organized for teachers at the Associated Schools, on a local and regional rather than an international scale;

(b) Guide: the procedural guide proposed by the group above might profitably be further developed within the Secretariat, in consultation with teachers at the Associated Schools and with other consultants, so that it might be used as a teaching aid;

(c) Teacher-training colleges with facilities for practical work: the Associated Schools should pay particular attention to using their influence with teacher-training colleges and in-service training courses for teachers, firstly in order to open teachers' eyes to the problems of their milieu and, secondly, to associate these institutions with a number of practical, non-educational activities in the community;

(d) The recommendation concerning Education for International Understanding, Co-operation and Peace and Education relating to Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms, adopted by the General Conference at its eighteenth session, should be studied by both teachers and pupils, for purposes of emulation at the conceptual level, whether from an educational or a methodological point of view, and even from the point of view of the content of the curricula of the Associated Schools;

(e) The group considered it desirable that the Associated Schools should establish closer relations and co-ordination with the leaders of the Unesco Clubs, who were very often pursuing the same goals.

CONCLUSION

The groups came together for a final plenary session and, after presenting their reports, made the following recommendations to the Secretariat, to National Commissions, to Associated Schools and teachers. They may be categorized in four areas: (i) further training; (ii) materials; (iii) structural changes; and (iv) substance for the circular, International understanding at school.

(i) Facilities or services leading to the exchange of ideas and gaining of more educational experience - e.g. meetings, courses, exchange programmes:

exchange programmes for teachers from Associated Schools should be arranged;

there is need for two types of meetings, one for educational administrators, one for teachers themselves;

there is need to offer incentives and recognition to institutions and teachers taking part in the Associated Schools project. Methods might include increasing the occasions for direct contact among teachers of different countries, and some form of certification or other recognition of their achievements might be considered;

(ii) Resources and material preparation:

a handbook for teachers on projects already carried out should be produced;

Unesco should assist in establishing clearing houses/curriculum development centres within the framework of existing institutions or bureaux. This is necessary in order that Associated Schools may obtain resource materials from other countries. In planning such centres attention should be given to such points as the kind of services to be offered, standards, the personnel needed, the mechanism for producing translations, sources of funding, etc. In this context, attention was drawn to the need to make an inventory of existing facilities, cataloguing and categorizing the kinds of information and services available. It was emphasized that existing institutions or agencies should be used rather than attempting to set up new ones;

there is need to provide teachers with readily usable basic data on world problems, for example food, armaments and so forth. This information is not easily available to schools.

(iii) Structural changes and network organization:

Resources should be concentrated on a limited number of Associated Schools which could do serious work. Two or three institutions in each country could serve as a nucleus. These would be the key centres for curriculum development in association with institutions in other countries. Unesco Regional Offices could help to co-ordinate activities. Other Associated Schools would be associated with these nucleus institutions.

(iv) Ideas for improving the circular, International understanding at school:

the circular should become an instrument in the process of curriculum development;

it should include one or more teaching units in each issue;

it should give detailed profiles of individual projects;

it should suggest specific projects on which schools in different countries might work;

it should present brief descriptive sketches of life in different countries;

it should give news about forthcoming events.

ANNEX I

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LISTE DES PARTICIPANTS

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ANNEX II

THE SCHOOL AS SOCIAL AGENT IN THE COMMUNITY: DETERMINANTS OF EFFECTIVE PROGRAMMES

Introductory Note

In recent years a number of schools participating in the Associated Schools Project have displayed increasing interest in innovative projects linking the school with the community. This paper presents some observations on factors which may determine the success or failure of such projects. It was prepared by Miss Suzanne Mowat, Head of Projects on School and Community of the Centre for Educational Research and Innovation of the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development. The views expressed in it are the responsibility of the author and do not necessarily reflect those of Unesco.

* * *

1. Despite the large amount of attention being given to the subject of the school's rôle as a social agent in the community, and the large and growing number of related projects at school level, there is as yet little hard evidence pertaining to objectives, methodologies, or results. Because so few programmes have been scientifically evaluated, it is not possible to state with accuracy what the consequences will be of a given course of action, nor what kinds of interventions are likely to serve what objectives. It is possible, however, to draw upon the general body of knowledge that is slowly developing, for the most part based on subjective accounts of the kinds of experiences in question, and to draw some reasonable conclusions concerning determinants of effectiveness in this area of innovation.

2. Because of the variety of contexts involved, the present discussion does not lend itself to much precision about specific forms of activity. Similarly some factors of entirely local definition must be overlooked. Our central concern must be with a range of possible activities that might be undertaken by a large number of schools that have little in common except (let us assume) an interest in developing closer relationships with their surrounding communities and, in doing so, creating and then fulfilling a rôle that is partly educational and partly social in the lives of these communities. The exact dimensions and precise content of this rôle will be determined by national, regional and local conditions distinct in each case.

3. If any such programme is to be judged a success, however, it will possess certain characteristics. Despite their seeming simplicity they are in fact important enough that they could serve in any context as guiding criteria from the programme's conception. The primary characteristic is two-way involvement. In physical and literal terms this means both that adults and children will be found doing the same thing at the same time, and - just as some of the activity will be conducted by adults inside school premises - activity will also be conducted by schoolchildren in neighbouring buildings and spaces. A second characteristic is the existence of a wide range of activities. Merely increasing attendance at scholastic or school-related courses is inadequate, as is creating a range of leisure-time activities for the non-school population. Such dichotomy increases the disassociation of school from activities around it and the distinction between education and life. It follows that effective programmes are also characterized by their wide mixtures of age-groups to be found following any one activity. Finally, effective programmes have accepted the principle of flexibility of time-tabling arrangements, "time-tabling" being defined in its broadest sense - in other words different kinds of activities are pursued at different hours of the day and evening.

4. Some factors appear to be of less importance than others and therefore need not enter too thoroughly into early deliberations. These include the physical characteristics of the school in question. Ultimately certain forms of activity are dependent on the provision of appropriate facilities and equipment, but much activity can and does take place unrelated to its physical setting. Elaboration in advance of a long-range and detailed plan of events is likewise not a determinant for success; indeed the contrary. Successful community involvement programmes do not want to know where and what they will be in two years' time. Instead their perpetuators have recognized that the process is an organic one, that its shape and component parts will change over time, as will its objectives and the rates of response and involvement among the groups concerned. This does of course entail risks, not least of all that no programme can seek to duplicate another, nor expect to find tailor-made solutions to its own questions or problems.

5. Of those factors which are important in determining effectiveness, many are especially so at the crucial early stages of planning and first implementation. Five in particular can be singled out:

(a) a fairly clear understanding of goals and objectives. Any school taking on the rôle of social agent should know why it is doing so and, specifically, what situations or problems it is hoping to influence and in what direction. As the programme develops it seems very often this original ambition to which it is necessary to refer in order to regain direction or purpose. The effects of an original involvement that reflected nothing more than a desire to be fashionable, or an attempt to respond somehow to guidelines or suggestions promulgated elsewhere, can be fatal;

(b) positive attitudes of participants towards the programme. At least a significant proportion of each participating group must feel committed to the programme's success and be prepared to suffer certain inconveniences on its behalf. Therefore the involvement of all groups from the beginning is of importance: ideally teachers, students, school maintenance personnel, local educational administration, community representatives and neighbourhood representatives are all informed and involved, often informally, even in early discussions;

(c) knowledge of the environment. Assuming the school is the primary motivating force in the early stages of the programme, it must be aware of the needs, demands, wishes and general mood of the community it is

seeking to involve. This includes whatever suspicions or fears there may be on the part of individuals or existing community groups, e.g. that the school is encroaching on the province of the latter, or that a successful programme will disrupt existing communal patterns - these are, incidentally, real and valid fears. Undertaking formal surveys before embarking on a programme is not necessary, but sensitivity is, as well as the realization that knowledge of local needs and desires and their transformation into appropriate actions will deepen and grow as the programme grows. The school should also be very clear about how it is perceived by its locality; very often the reputation a school has for being effective in its traditional functions seems the most critical factor in its initial success in its new rôle. Finally, the school should be aware of very precise demographic and geographic features, such as where people live and the availability of public transport;

(d) the creation and maintenance within the school of a welcoming, non-hostile, and non-threatening atmosphere. The new clientele the school most wishes to attract may be exactly that one that feels most threatened, e.g. the unemployed father for whom "going back to school" is at first response an admission of failure, or the illiterate who wishes to obscure the fact. There seems general agreement here on the importance of a seemingly minor but usually successful institution: a coffee bar (or local equivalent) that serves as an informal place not imbued with a school-like atmosphere. People can mingle at will, without necessarily committing themselves too much in advance;

(e) scale. It seems not useful to present for initial consumption an elaborate programme of activities. In fact such predetermination of the course of events runs counter to the important principles of growth and widely-based participation. Furthermore, it seems wise to begin with courses or activities that represent the "tried and true", not with exotic attention-attracting packages that very often have the opposite effect. It appears useful to begin on a small scale, with an event or undertaking that seems manageable and likely to succeed.

6. Even for programmes planned in full cognizance of these factors, certain fairly predictable problems shortly begin to emerge. Clearly it is advisable to be aware of these in advance as some can be to some extent circumvented. One category of problems is administrative, both external and internal. Concerning the former, it is possible that some forms of regional or national administrations simply to not permit certain forms of school-based activity, either because of legislative structure, or an existing definition of responsibilities, or - not to be dismissed - simply because of unfavourable attitudes somewhere in the hierarchy. It is also possible that a teachers' union will raise objections, either to extra work being expected from their members or fewer responsibilities given. Here it usually is useful (if possible) to establish at the beginning even informal procedures for co-ordination and arbitration, remembering the usefulness of even such means of communication as the telephone. Often nagging small-scale problems appear the most insurmountable, such as questions of whether extra insurance is needed for participants in certain activities, if obtainable.

7. Administrative problems internal to the programme often involve questions of responsibility and control. Ideally a community involvement programme is guided on a participatory basis by its participants, but especially after a certain scale of activity has been reached questions of creation of an appropriate form of council and then of delineation of responsibility sooner or later emerge. Formation of this council is often made easier if it can grow somewhat naturally from a group that has earlier been appointed or elected to deal with a relatively simple matter, e.g. organizing a social event sometime during the programme's early stages.

8. Financing often poses difficulties although not as serious as might be assumed. Very much can be done with small sums of money; furthermore, co-operation of local authorities referred to above may result in some financial concessions, e.g. (in some climates) electricity to light a school for an extra hour each evening. As with educational matters in general, the greatest proportion of extra cost will go towards personnel. But here it is useful to remember that in a genuine community education programme, volunteer citizens who know something are very often willing if asked to share what they know, to become pedagogues free of charge. Likewise local firms, at least in early stages of projects, are often surprisingly co-operative about sharing their premises or expertise.

9. Running through all the above is that category of problem that can only be referred to as human. Whether successful or not, community involvement programmes are frustrating and exhausting. Once the excitement of creation has worn off (say in two years), people become tired. Sometimes too the results of lack of early clarity concerning objectives and motivation or of unclear expectation, emerge at this stage. People forget why they became involved in the first place, or what it was that originally inspired them.

10. As a final determinant it therefore seems wise to think right from the early stages of any such programme in terms of momentum: to ensure in so far as possible that an adequate personnel is involved: to provide them - again in so far as possible - with training, and with retraining as the programme changes; to inject new personnel and new ideas before their necessity is apparent. Finally, the maintenance of possibilities - which means procedures - for reappraisal and examination is an important factor. Participants must be given frequent chances to draw back and regroup or to change direction or to continue as the case might be.

ANNEX III

EDUCATION AND COMMUNITY

Introductory Note

A striking example of work on a national scale to strengthen the links between the school and the community is presented by educational reforms under way in Peru. This paper sketches the aims and methods of the reform and presents in detail the work of one educational centre. It was prepared by Mr. Rolando Andrade Talledo, Director-General of the Dirección General de Educación Inicial y Básica Regular, Lima. The views expressed in it are the responsibility of the author and do not necessarily reflect those of Unesco.

1) The communal educational nucleus

In the Peruvian educational reform, education is conceived as an integrated process which goes on in educational establishments as well as in the family and the community. What distinguishes educational action is thus its nature rather than the institution that carries it out.

Another basic assumption underlying this reform is that education should be oriented towards the transformation and constant improvement of society. In this sense, education is indissolubly linked to the right and duty of the community to participate in the educational process. Such participation is essential, as it is a necessary condition for avoiding the danger of a discriminatory privatism or of an authoritarian statism.

How can what is explained above be realized ? To respond to this methodological problem, the Peruvian educational reform devised the nuclear system. The nucleus constitutes a new structure for the organization of educational services in the community. It makes it possible to break with the traditional form of the school without links to the community and it facilitates social and educational change.

The educational nucleus is, then, the basic element of this new system. The guiding principles which governed its organization are the following :

- The educational process should be considered as a social function for which the community is responsible;

- The integration of educational centres into a network of nuclearized services functioning in a given place.

As the basic communal organization, the nucleus comprises the geographical environment (orographic, hydrographic and climatic characteristics), the population as a whole (categorized by age groups, professional status, socio-economic characteristics) and communal equipment (the aggregate of services, medical centres, sports centres, clubs, etc.).

2) The relation between the educational centre and the community

According to the principles of the Peruvian educational reform, the educational process should be oriented in two directions : from the community towards the school and from the school towards the community. An educational centre should receive all possible support from the community and should make its presence felt when community life needs support or constructive criticism.

On the one hand, community problems should be reflected in the school, not indirectly but in a deliberate way welcomed by all. The difficulties, struggles, failures and successes of the community should be considered as forming part of the problems of the school.

On the other hand, the educational centre should develop service activities for the community, not only by studying concrete problems but also by working actively - teachers as well as students - to further good causes and to criticize injustices in such a way as to serve the interests of the majority and develop its participation.

This educational centre-community relationship is one of the main features of the Peruvian educational reform. It is the foundation of what is called the open school where life in the largest sense, and not the classroom, is the context of education.

In practical terms, how does this reciprocal relationship work ? We can see by looking at an example in a poor quarter of Lima : the Villa El Salvador Educational Centre (CECONVES), which came into being precisely as an outgrowth of the process of change developing in Peru.

In 1971, when the general report on the educational reform was published, describing the educational system and specifying its fundamentals, there took place at Lima a series of land occupations which resulted in the appearance of the largest shantytowns in the capital : el Pueblo Joven Villa El Salvador.

In these shantytowns, people found themselves without water, without electricity, without work, without any kind of services and, in particular, without an educational centre. For these reasons, this zone seemed an appropriate place to create an educational centre of the type proposed in the educational reform.

A group of teachers installed themselves in the shantytown in the first few months. Along with the other people, they put up with the lack of services, in particular the lack of transportation. The meetings which they organized with the inhabitants revealed the necessity of planning an education which reflected the realities with which the people lived - an education which would not only provide schooling for the young people of the shantytowns, but would also develop solidarity among the people in finding solutions to problems. Thus came into being the communal educational centre of Villa El Salvador.

From the beginning, the parents of the pupils and the pupils themselves took part in constructing premises (seven classrooms were built of matting and wood)while at the same time meeting together to consider what type of education should be provided by the school.

To discuss community problems as well as those of the school, class committees were organized. At the outset there was serious difficulty in establishing a dialogue between the young people and the adults. The latter were unable to accept the opinions of the young people, whom they considered inferior to themselves; they felt that the young people should therefore follow the directives of the adults. These meetings dealt with such subjects as the organization of life in the quarter (a large proportion of the pupils' parents now exercise responsibilities in their neighbourhood, dwelling blocs or residential groups) or unemployment, which is the main problem.

Confronted with this problem, the people sought solutions but the difficulties were large and resources small. Nevertheless, it was possible to set up a construction workers' co-operative. The workers distributed jobs among themselves according to the possibilities which they could find. Wages were redistributed among all the members of the co-operative at the end of the year. Women's workshops for the making of clothing were also organized. These measures certainly did not solve the serious unemployment problem, but many people were enabled to see the causes of the phenomenon and to strengthen their solidarity and combativity, while at the same time at least some found a solution to their immediate economic problems.

For pupils, the changes went deeper : the entire system of study and training was modified. Co-educational training based on group work replaced the individualistic training which had separated boys and girls. Education based on memory and turned to the past was replaced by a critical education facing the present and preparing for the future. Finally, intellectualized education unrelated to the life of the community was replaced by education for work in the service of the community. In fact, workshops making use of the limited working space available in the shantytowns (a workshop in the parish church, a machine shop in the bus terminal, etc.) were organized.

To make this kind of activity dynamic, an educational method based on the information sheet system was used. These information sheets partly replace textbooks. They have the advantage of being adapted to the realities of the environment since they are prepared by the group and kept up to date as regards changes affecting the life of the community. School textbooks thus become books of reference and support. The teacher does not dictate lessons but instead should guide teamwork : answer pupils' questions, listen to their suggestions and develop with them concrete projects serving the community and the educational centre.

For another thing, the students have organized a council composed of delegates from classes. The council is responsible for programming and directing school and out-of-school activities, organizing meetings with the pupils' parents, taking part in community meetings, etc.

Finally, the centre's intensive cultural action is another service to the community which helps to strengthen links with it. There are frequent film showings; a chorus has been formed and four people's theatre groups from the centre give performances every Sunday in the public parks of the quarter and in the different centres of the network.

The foregoing presents an example of an educational centre created as a result of the Peruvian educational reform. It is evident, of course, that much remains to be done to establish the best possible relations between the school and the community.

In most educational centres, too much importance is still attached to the classroom. A sufficiently close relationship between education and production has not yet been developed. The pupils' parents do not assume entirely their share of responsibility for the educational process. Many teachers show too little initiative and many officials have not shed the bureaucratic mentality which stifles their creativity.

But we are moving ahead. The Peruvian educational reform is not only an accomplished fact but also a developing process with its ups and downs. In reality, it is a challenge for the construction of the new, more just, more interdependent society which we all desire.

Education is one aspect of the movement under way in Peru. That is why it transforms, and is transformed by, the community. The educational reform has engendered a slogan which is already popular in Peru : "Education is everybody's job".